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Strategies in a metallophyte species to cope with manganese excess

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15 Abstract

16 The effect of exposure to high Mn concentration was studied in a metallophyte

17 species, *Erica andevalensis*, using hydroponic cultures with a range of Mn

18 concentrations (0.06, 100, 300, 500 and 700 mg L⁻¹). At harvest, biomass production,

19 element uptake, and biochemical indicators of metal stress (leaf pigments, organic acids,

20 amino acids, phenols, and activities of catalase, peroxidase, superoxide dismutase) were

21 determined in leaves and roots. Increasing Mn concentrations led to a decrease in

22 biomass accumulation and tip leaves chlorosis was the only toxicity symptom detected.

23 In a similar way, photosynthetic pigments (chlorophylls *a* and *b*, and carotenoids) were

24 affected by high Mn levels. Among organic acids, malate and oxalate contents in roots

25 showed a significant increase at the highest Mn concentration while in leaves, Mn led to

26 an increasing trend in citrate and malate contents. An increase of Mn also induced an

27 increase of superoxide dismutase activity in roots and catalase activity in leaves. As

28 well, significant changes in free amino acids were induced by Mn concentrations higher

29 than 300 mg L⁻¹, especially in roots. No significant changes in phenolic compounds

30 were observed in the leaves but root phenolics were significantly increased by
31 increasing Mn concentrations in treatments. When Fe supply was increased 10 and 20
32 times (7-14 mg Fe L⁻¹ as Fe-EDDHA) in the nutrient solutions at the highest Mn
33 concentration (700 mg Mn L⁻¹), it led to significant increases in photosynthetic pigments
34 and biomass accumulation. Manganese was mostly accumulated in the roots and the
35 species was essentially a Mn excluder. However, considering the high leaf Mn
36 concentration recorded without toxicity symptoms, *E. andevalensis* might be rated as a
37 Mn tolerant species.

38

39 **Keywords:** *Erica andevalensis*, manganese, metallophytes, uptake, organic acids,
40 amino acids, catalase, peroxidase, superoxide dismutase

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42

43 **Introduction**

44

45 Acid soils usually contain excessive levels of potentially toxic elements like Mn
46 and Al, and many plants species have developed adaptation strategies to survive and
47 thrive in such limiting environments (Marschner 1995). In the particular case of very
48 acid soils contaminated by mining activities (e.g. the Pyrite Belt in the Iberian
49 Peninsula) hold high concentration of other phytotoxic metals and metalloids like As,
50 Cu, Fe, Pb and Zn (Abreu et al. 2008; Márquez-García and Córdoba 2010; Monaci et al.
51 2011). The location of some plant communities along the banks of highly acid and
52 contaminated rivers exposes the species to periodical floods and waterlogging which
53 may increase even more the availability of toxic metals (Rodríguez et al. 2007; Abreu et
54 al. 2008; Marschner 1995). This scenario is the natural habitat of a metallophyte
55 species, *Erica andevalensis* Cabezudo & Rivera, which thrives on these soils and
56 accumulates and tolerates Mn even where the metal is not present at high concentration
57 (Abreu et al. 2008; Monaci et al. 2011; Rossini Oliva et al. 2018). *Erica andevalensis* is
58 a vulnerable and endemic species of the Iberian Pyrite Belt (Cabezudo and Rivera,
59 1980), able to colonize successfully mine tailings allowing a vegetative cover (Rossini-
60 Oliva et al., 2018, Pérez-López et al. 2014).

61 Manganese is an essential element for plants but an excessive accumulation may
62 produce toxicity. Many plant species show dark spots on leaves, crinckled leaves as
63 main toxicity symptoms (Foy et al. 1978; Fernando and Lynch 2015) and greater
64 activity of enzymes related to metabolism of reactive oxygen species generated by Mn
65 toxicity (Leidi et al. 1987, 1989; Fecht-Christoffers et al. 2006; Millaleo et al. 2010).
66 Manganese is oxidased to Mn^{3+} in the cell wall by peroxidases producing typical
67 symptoms (brown spots) and leaf injuries (Fecht-Christoffers et al. 2006). In shoots of
68 Mn-hyperaccumulator plants (able to accumulate more than 10,000 mg kg⁻¹), the metal

69 is accumulated at very high concentration without toxicity symptoms through efficient
70 systems of metal compartmentation (Krämer 2010). In some species like *Acanthopanax*
71 *sciadophylloides* and *Phytolacca spp*, most Mn appears complexed with oxalate
72 (Memon and Yatazawa 1984; Dou et al. 2009; Xu et al. 2009).

73 Non-hyperaccumulator plants have developed different adaptation mechanisms
74 to cope with high Mn concentrations such as limited transport into shoots by root
75 fixation or compartmentation in root vacuoles, chelation and storage in leaf cell
76 vacuoles or leaf structures (glands, trichomes) to avoid the Mn-induced generation of
77 toxic oxygen radicals in the cell wall and the cytosol (Horiguchi 1987; Ernst et al. 1992;
78 Reichman 2002; Sharma et al. 2016). The increased synthesis of carboxylates has been
79 related to metal chelation and its vacuole storage (Pittman 2005) and malate and citrate
80 are mostly the organic acids associated with Mn in the vacuoles (Führs et al. 2012;
81 Blamey et al. 2015). The induction by high Mn concentration of some tonoplast metal
82 transporters, like the cation diffusion facilitator or metal transporter proteins (MTP8) or
83 other less specific metal transporters (CAX) might be responsible for Mn vacuolar
84 accumulation (Migocka et al. 2014; Sharma et al. 2016). Meanwhile, available Fe may
85 effectively reduce Mn uptake and toxicity symptoms (Marschner, 1995). The aim of this
86 study was to determine tolerance to high Mn in *Erica andevalensis* by answering
87 questions like how much Mn can tolerate the species? Or which are the main organic
88 chelators induced by metal excess? How some reactive oxygen scavengers react to Mn
89 toxicity?

90

91 **Materials and Methods**

92 *Plant culture*

93 Seeds of *Erica andevalensis* were collected in Peña de Hierro (Riotinto mining
94 area, SW Spain) during Spring. The seeds were sterilised in 0.3 % hypochlorite and

95 washed three times with sterile distilled water, placed to germinate in Petri dishes on a
96 double layer of filter paper. After germination, seedlings were transferred into tubes
97 filled with rockwool and 8 L plastic buckets with a nutrient solution (pH 4.0) reported
98 by Rossini-Oliva et al. (2012) at 1/10th strength. When seedlings were approximately 4–
99 5 cm height, the experiment was started by adding different concentrations of Mn (100,
100 300, 500, and 700 mg L⁻¹) as MnSO₄ to the nutrient solution. The Mn concentrations
101 were chosen considering that the available Mn concentration found in soils of S.
102 Domingo mine (Portugal) was approximately 100 mg L⁻¹, and to test the Mn tolerance
103 of this species we multiplied it by a factor of 3, 5 and 7. The basic nutrient solution
104 (control) contained 0.06 mg L⁻¹ Mn. The solutions were continuously aerated with an
105 aquarium air pump, and renewed every seven days to maintain a constant nutrient
106 supply and metal concentration. The experiment was carried out in a growth chamber
107 with cycles of 26–22 °C (day-night temperature) and 16 h light/8 h darkness. In order to
108 study the effect of Fe on Mn stress alleviation, plants were cultivated in a nutrient
109 solution containing the highest Mn concentration reported above (700 mg L⁻¹) and 7 or
110 14 mg L⁻¹ of Fe as Fe-EDDHA. These concentrations were chosen according to
111 previous lab studies. The experiment was carried out during 45 days and plants were
112 weighed at 15–days intervals. All treatments had four replicates and eight plants in each
113 replicate.

114

115 ***Plant analysis and growth measurement***

116 At harveste, plants were separated into leaves and roots and washed with
117 distilled water. Four plants per replicate were oven-dried at 70 °C during 48 h and dry
118 biomass of shoots and roots was determined. The remaining plants were sampled for
119 biochemical assays and the remainings frozen and liophylized for further organic acids

120 analyses. Oven-dried plant material was milled and digested with a HNO₃ in a Digiprep
121 digester. Elements concentration (B, Ca, Cu, Fe, K, Mg, Mn, P, S and Zn) in roots and
122 shoots was determined by inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry
123 (ICP-AES). Elements concentrations were determined by the method of standard
124 additions and were expressed in mg element per kg dry weight. Procedural blanks were
125 usually below the detection limit. Biomass production was calculated as the difference
126 between the fresh weight at the beginning and the end of the experiment. Water content
127 (WC) in roots and shoots was calculated at harvest as:

128

129 $WC = [(fresh\ weight - dry\ weight)/fresh\ weight] \times 100.$

130

131 The ratio between shoots and roots dry biomass was also calculated.

132 Translocation coefficient (TC), the quantitative ratio between Mn concentration in plant
133 leaves and roots was calculated to recognize the preferential partitioning of Mn to the
134 aerial part (TC values > 1).

135

136 *Determination of photosynthetic pigments, organic acids and phenolic compounds*

137 Photosynthetic pigments were determined in methanolic extracts obtained from
138 shoot tips after extraction for 24 h in darkness at room temperature according to
139 Lichtentahler (1987). The analysis of organic acids in shoots and roots was performed
140 by HPLC for identifying main carboxylates. Then, quantification was performed using
141 enzymatic kits (L-malic acid, citric acid and Enzytec oxalic acid, R-Biopharm). For
142 HPLC separation, a Synergi Hydro-RP column and 20 mM KH₂PO₄ pH 2.9 (eluent)
143 were used. Peaks were detected with a PDA detector (Waters 2996). The concentration
144 of phenolic compounds was determined in ethanolic extracts from shoots and roots

145 using the Folin-Ciocalteu reagent and the concentration was estimated using a standard
146 curve of chlorogenic acid (Chirinos et al. 2007). The analyses were run in triplicate.

147

148 ***Catalase, peroxidase, and superoxide dismutase activities***

149 Shoots and roots were frozen in liquid N₂ and ground with mortar and pestle.
150 Then, tissue samples, three per treatment (approx. 0.1 g fresh weight) were
151 homogenized with plastic rods in Eppendorf tubes with 50 mM Tris-HCl buffer pH 7.5,
152 containing 0.1 mM EDTA, 2 mM dithiothreitol and 0.2% Triton X-100 (1:20,
153 weight:volume ratio). After centrifugation at 10,000 g (4 °C, 15 min) enzymes activities
154 were determined in the supernatants. Catalase activity was determined in crude extracts
155 following decrease in A_{240nm} at 20 °C in phosphate buffer 50 mM pH 7.0 containing 15
156 mM H₂O₂ (Aebi 1984). Peroxidase was assayed following pyrogallol oxidation at
157 A_{420nm} in phosphate buffer 25 mM pH 6.0 containing 0.025% H₂O₂ (Jiménez et al.
158 1997). A photochemical assay (Giannopolities and Ries, 1977), was used to determine
159 superoxide dismutase activity with methionine, riboflavin and *p*-nitro blue tetrazolium
160 (NBT) measuring inhibition of NBT photoreduction at A_{560nm} (25 °C). Protein in the
161 supernatants was determined with Bradford's reagent (Bradford 1976).

162

163 ***Free amino acids in leaf and roots***

164 For the extraction of free amino acids from shoots and roots, three frozen
165 samples maintained at -70 °C were homogenized in 80% ethanol by crushing tissues
166 with plastic rods, set in ultrasonic bath for 5 min, centrifuged and filtered through
167 45 µm membranes. Amino acids were separated and quantified after derivatization with
168 phenylisothiocyanate by reverse-phase high-performance liquid chromatography

169 (Heinrikson and Meredith 1984) with a Waters chromatographic system (Water 510
170 pumps, 717 autosampler, absorbance detector 486, and Pico.Tag column).

171

172 *Statistical analyses*

173 Data were tested for normality by Shapiro-Wilk test ($p > 0.05$) prior to
174 conducting the analyses. Differences of variables (elements concentration, biomass,
175 water content, photosynthetic pigments, etc.) among treatments and plant parts were
176 tested using the ANOVA method, followed by the Tukey post-hoc multiple comparison
177 test. For variables that were not normal nonparametric test of Kruskal-Wallis was
178 applied to compare multiple independent samples and Mann-Whitney U test was also
179 used to test differences between two groups. A correlation analysis (Pearson) was
180 performed between the Mn concentration in nutrient solution and the other elements in
181 the different plant parts and physiological parameters. All the statistical analyses were
182 performed by Statistica (StatSoft Inc., USA) software program and probability level was
183 set to $p < 0.05$.

184

185 **Results**

186

187 *Plant growth and physiological parameters*

188 Chlorotic leaves appeared when plants were grown in aqueous solutions with
189 500 or 700 mg Mn L⁻¹ (Figure 1). However, no dark dots or spots, typical leaf
190 symptoms of Mn toxicity in many plant species, were detected. Plants treated with 300
191 mg Mn L⁻¹ or higher Mn concentration showed a slight growth reduction at the
192 beginning but growth resumed the following weeks (Fig. 2). Biomass accumulation was
193 affected by the Mn treatments ($p=0.001$) (Fig. 3), with a continuous inhibition at each
194 Mn increase in the nutrient solution. Significant differences in the plant biomass were

195 observed between all Mn treatments compared with the control, but no differences were
196 observed between 100 and 300 mg Mn L⁻¹ or between 300 and 500 mg Mn L⁻¹. A
197 negative correlation ($r=-0.40$, $p<0.05$) was found between Mn concentration in solution
198 and plant biomass. Shoot and root water contents did not change with Mn treatments
199 (Table 1), but the shoot/root ratio showed significant differences between Mn
200 treatments ($p=0.001$). Shoots showed greater sensitivity than roots to the highest Mn
201 concentration in the nutrient solution in comparison with the control treatment (73% vs
202 54% inhibition). Correlation analysis showed a negative correlation ($r=-0.56$, $p<0.05$)
203 between Mn concentration and plant shoot/root ratio.

204 The increase in Mn supply affected negatively the content of photosynthetic
205 pigments ($p<0.001$) (Table 1). Chlorophylls and carotenoids concentration decreased
206 when Mn concentration in the nutrient solution reached 300 mg L⁻¹ (Table 1). When
207 additional Fe was added to the solution with the highest Mn concentration (700 mg Mn
208 L⁻¹), a correction in the chlorosis was observed with the corresponding increase in leaf
209 pigments (Table 1, Fig. 1b) and a significant increase of biomass production was also
210 observed (Fig. 3). A positive correlation was found between Fe and chlorophyll a
211 ($r=0.55$) and b ($r=0.57$). Both Fe treatments (7 and 14 mg L⁻¹) also affected carotenoids
212 and chlorophyll content leading to a significant increase ($p<0.05$) in their concentration
213 (Table 1). At high Mn concentration an increased concentration of phenolic compounds
214 in roots was observed but not in leaves (Table 2). Increasing Mn concentration induced
215 changes in enzymatic scavenging systems of reactive oxygen species such as a
216 significant increase of catalase activity (CAT) in leaves and superoxide dismutase
217 activity (SOD) in roots (Table 3). However, no significant change in peroxidase activity
218 was found either in shoots or roots. When increasing Fe supply at the highest Mn

219 concentration, it led to a reduction in CAT in leaves and roots but an increase in root
220 SOD activity (Table 3).

221 Among carboxylates found in roots and leaves (Table 4), clear differences were
222 found between plant organs. In the leaves, citrate was significantly increased by Mn in
223 the medium ($r=0.89$, $p<0.05$) while in roots oxalate (and fumarate although at low
224 concentration recorded by HPLC analysis, data not reported) was significantly
225 correlated with Mn concentration in solution ($r=0.94$, $p<0.05$). Malate content was also
226 significantly increased by Mn in both leaves and roots ($r=0.94$, $p<0.001$ and $r=0.70$,
227 $p<0.05$, respectively). High Mn in the medium also induced an increased accumulation
228 of amino acids in roots (Table 5) particularly in aspartate, glutamate, arginine, and the
229 amides asparagine and glutamine. In the leaves, only arginine was significantly
230 increased by Mn (Table 5) meanwhile it was noteworthy the reduction in methionine
231 concentration detected.

232

233 ***Plant chemical composition***

234 The variation in elements concentration in leaves and roots in plants treated with
235 Mn are presented in Table 6 and Figure 4. In the roots, the concentration of all elements
236 was modified by Mn treatments ($p>0.05$) with the exception of S and Ca (Table 6). Root
237 P concentration significantly increased when an additional supply of Fe (14 mg Fe L^{-1})
238 was provided at the highest Mn concentration (Table 6) and a similar pattern was
239 observed for root Fe concentration (Figure 4a). Manganese supply did not change
240 substantially root Fe concentration but it significantly diminished leaves Fe content
241 (Figure 4b), and a significant negative association was found between Mn treatments
242 and leaf Fe concentration ($r=-0.78$, $p>0.05$). At high Mn, supply of additional Fe led to
243 leaves Fe concentration recovery to levels found at 100 and 300 mg Mn L^{-1} (Figure 4b).

244 Manganese concentration in roots increased with Mn supply but no significant
245 differences between treatments were found except with the control. The addition of Fe
246 at the highest Mn concentration had no effect on Mn accumulation in roots (Table 6). A
247 competitive or antagonistic effect of Mn treatments was found in the root contents of K
248 and Mg, which were always lower than the control when increasing Mn concentration
249 (Table 6). Concentration of Cu in roots was not affected by Mn but it increased when
250 plants were treated with additional Fe. A significant negative association was found
251 among Mn root concentration with root concentration of K ($r=-0.73$) and Mg ($r=-0.78$).
252 Meanwhile, Fe contents in roots were positively associated with root contents of Ca
253 ($r=0.45$), Cu ($r=0.85$) and P ($r=0.57$).

254 In the leaves, increasing Mn significantly decreased the concentration of Ca,
255 Mg, Cu, and Fe (Table 6, Fig. 4b) and negative correlation was found between Mn with
256 Ca ($r=-0.78$), Cu ($r=-0.80$), Fe ($r=-0.65$) and Mg ($r=-0.84$). However, Mn supply did not
257 affect the concentration of P and S in leaves. The leaf Mn concentration increased until
258 Mn concentration reached 300 mg L^{-1} (Table 6). Interestingly, additional Fe did not
259 reduce Mn accumulation as it might be expected (antagonism) but was positively
260 associated with Ca ($r=0.66$), Cu ($r=0.64$) and Mg ($r=0.68$) contents.

261 The elements accumulation pattern was different between roots and leaves
262 (Figure 5). The roots were the recipient of most Cu, P and Mn in comparison with
263 shoots ($TC < 1$) whilst the leaves accumulated more B, Ca, K, Mg and S than the roots
264 ($TC > 1$). It is interesting to note that for Fe values of TC were higher than unity for
265 control, 100 and 300 mg Mn L^{-1} but it decreased when Mn in the nutrient solution
266 increased and when Fe was supplied.

267

268 **Discussion**

269 *Erica andevalensis*, even though is a non-hyperaccumulator *stricto senso*
270 species, as it only reached a maximum of 3,619 mg Mn kg⁻¹ in leaves (Table 6), was
271 able to tolerate up to 700 mg Mn L⁻¹ (or 15 mM) in the root medium. Leaves displayed
272 just tip chlorosis (from 500 mg Mn L⁻¹) as unique visual toxicity symptom but biomass
273 production was inhibited even by 100 mg Mn L⁻¹ (Fig. 3). Most of the uptake Mn
274 remained immobilized in the roots (TC<1) blocking its transfer into the leaves probably
275 either oxidized and fixed in root cell walls or accumulated in root vacuoles (combined
276 with organic acids or chelated by phenolic compounds). Transport into shoots of
277 divalent cations like Fe, Ca, Mg and Cu was also inhibited by high Mn concentration in
278 the solution (Table 6). The antagonistic effect of Mn on Ca, Mg and Fe uptake has been
279 well documented (Marschner 1995). Leaf chlorosis may be the result of a Mn-induced
280 Fe or Mg deficiency (Marschner 1995) or pigment photooxidation induced by an
281 oxidative stress (Fernando and Lynch 2015; Noctor et al. 2015). When Fe supply was
282 increased (in the form of Fe-EDDHA) in the nutrient solution, chlorosis disappeared
283 with the improved content in photosynthetic pigments and Fe and the biomass
284 production was improved (Table 1, Fig. 3). However, leaf Mn contents was not reduced
285 by Fe addition as reported in other species (Zaharieva 1995). The lower chlorophyll *a*
286 and *b* and carotenoids content at high Mn contents might result in photosynthetic
287 inhibition as reported in other species (Li et al. 2010; Millaleo et al. 2013). Shoot
288 growth was more sensitive to high Mn than root growth (Table 1) even though leaf Mn
289 contents were lower (1,328-3,619 mg Mn kg⁻¹) than in roots (9,564-14,036 mg Mn kg⁻¹)
290 (Table 6). This differential sensitivity between leaves and roots might be due to a
291 greater root capacity for Mn sequestration into vacuoles or fixation in cellular structures
292 either oxidized or chelated.

293 The excess of Mn may lead to overproduction of oxygen reactive species (ROS)
294 by Fenton reaction on metabolically generated H₂O₂ (e.g. by mitochondrial respiration,
295 apoplastic NADPH oxidases, cell wall peroxidases, etc.) or other metabolic process
296 where Mn interference might induce additional oxidative stress (Noctor et al. 2015;
297 Sharma et al. 2016; Berni et al. 2018). Phenolic compounds, carboxylates and some
298 amino acids, may chelate or sequester the element in extra- or intracellular
299 compartments (Mahal et al. 2005; Callahan et al. 2006; Sharma and Dietz 2006; Flis et
300 al. 2016). High Mn concentration in the medium increased phenolic contents and amino
301 acids (aspartate, glutamate, arginine, asparagine and glutamine) in roots (Tables 2 and
302 5). Phenolics may sequester the excess of metal (Baldisserotto et al. 2004) but also they
303 are effective antioxidants avoiding cellular damage induced by reactive oxygen species
304 (ROS) (Mahal et al. 2005; Michalak 2006). The increased phenolic synthesis is a
305 general response under metal stress (Michalak 2006; Berni et al. 2018). Meanwhile, the
306 increase of the glutamate cycle amino acids might correspond to the change in redox
307 state of cells (Gulyás et al. 2017) induced by Mn excess depleting the
308 ascorbate/glutathione antioxidative pools (Noctor et al. 2015). As a result of this
309 metabolic re-programming, some amino acids may serve as metal ligands (e.g.
310 asparagine, aspartic, glutamine) (Sharma and Dietz 2006; Clemens 2019) or are
311 required (e.g. arginine) for the synthesis of antioxidants (polyamines) (Noctor et al.
312 2015).

313 High Mn concentration in the plant also induced greater activity of enzymes like
314 superoxide dismutase in roots and catalase in leaves (Table 3) which may protect plants
315 against oxidative stress (Noctor et al. 2015; Del Río et al. 2018). An increased activity
316 of Mn-SOD isoenzyme may be expected at toxic Mn levels (Leidi et al. 1987; González
317 et al, 1998; Bowler et al. 1991) at a time in which Mn stress-induced an increase in

318 mitochondrial respiration resulting in supply of organic acids (Venekamp 1989; Noctor
319 et al. 2015).

320 The critical Mn concentration in plants for toxicity is different according to
321 species and varieties and may widely vary between 200-5300 mg Mn kg⁻¹ (Marschner
322 1995). In most plant species, the Mn concentration considered adequate for normal
323 growth varies from 30 to 500 mg kg⁻¹ (Clarkson 1988). The Ericaceae family has an
324 extraordinary ability to bioaccumulate Mn in the leaves (Schüürmann and Markert
325 1998). Under field conditions, shoot/leaves of *E. andevalensis* accumulate more than
326 1,000 mg Mn kg⁻¹ when sampled in areas with acid pH and mine-contaminated soils
327 (Abreu et al. 2008; Márquez-García and Córdoba 2010; Monaci et al. 2011) with no
328 signs of oxidative stress (Márquez-García and Córdoba 2010). A still unexplored field is
329 the possible role of root mucilages in metal binding (Morel et al. 1986) which are
330 abundantly secreted by Ericaceae roots (Leiser 1968). As pointed out above, the Mn
331 accumulation behaviour of this species may be the result of several mechanisms to
332 avoid free cellular Mn²⁺ (like cell walls sequestration, chelation and vacuolar storage)
333 and enzymatic antioxidant systems (SOD, catalase) to reduce cellular damage if ROS
334 are produced at any place by the toxicant. In the field, the Mn translocation factor value
335 indicated an opposite pattern found in our study since the leaf accumulated more Mn
336 than root (TC >1, Monaci et al. 2011; Pérez-López et al. 2014). This is a consequence
337 of the low Mn concentration in the available fraction of the mining soils (Monaci et al.
338 2011; Pérez-López et al. 2014) in spite of soil acidity. Under these conditions, *E.*
339 *andevalensis* efficiently translocates Mn into the shoot as it is an essential element.
340 Under our controlled conditions, the concentration of the available Mn was high and the
341 roots accumulated high levels of Mn. In the shoots, Mn tolerance in *E. andevalensis*
342 resulted largely because of metal root fixation, which controls translocation and plays

343 an important role avoiding metal built up in leaves (Marschner 1995; El-Jaoual and Cox
344 1998, Millaleo et al. 2010; Singh et al. 2016).

345 In comparison with Mn-hyperaccumulator species like *Acanthopanax*
346 *sciadophylloides* (Memon and Yatazawa, 1984) or *Phytolacca americana* (Dou et al.
347 2009), in *E. andevalensis* the excess of Mn was not associated with an increase in leaf
348 oxalate (Table 4). Citrate and malate in the leaves and malate and oxalate in the roots
349 were recorded as the main carboxylates whose concentration increased by high Mn
350 concentration probably related to their capacity to complex it in acid cell environments
351 like vacuoles (Flis et al. 2016; Clemens 2019). Malate and citrate have been reported to
352 be the main organic ligands for Mn stored in the vacuoles (Blamey et al. 2006; Haydon
353 and Cobbett 2007). However, the role of o carboxylates like malonate, α -cetoglutarate
354 or succinate reported in other species should not be discarded (Führs et al. 2012).

355

356 **Conclusions**

357 *Erica andevalensis* may tolerate high concentration of Mn without specific Mn
358 toxicity symptoms by restricting shoot Mn contents. Although Mn retention in the roots
359 may contribute to the Mn tolerance in this species, this mechanism was not enough to
360 avoid decrease of photosynthetic pigments and biomass production. The lower uptake
361 of essential nutrients (Ca, Cu Fe, Mg and Zn) induced by high Mn concentration in the
362 nutrient solution might be one of the factors involved in growth inhibition. However,
363 synthesis of protective compounds (phenolics, carboxylates) which may play an
364 important role as antioxidants or metal ligands might divert energy resources required
365 for growth. Also several amino acids (aspartate, glutamate, arginine, asparagine and
366 glutamine) might be involved in Mn tolerance. Manganese had an antagonist effect on
367 Fe uptake and an additional supply of Fe in the medium increased photosynthetic
368 pigments, biomass production and relieved leaf chlorosis.

369

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